SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

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FINANCIAL SUPPORT OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS[1]

THAT education for all the children of the state should be provided at public expense is no longer a question for debate. We are now concerned rather with how much money should be raised for the purpose, how it should be raised, and on what basis it should be distributed.

It will be agreed that a substantial part of the public educational fund should be raised by local taxation. Any other plan would tend to rob the community of its right and power of initiative and its feeling of personal interest in the school because of its personal investment. The local obligation, moreover, is greatest because the local benefits are greatest. Sacrifice is not a pain, but a privilege when it is made to win the thing we prize highly or cherish dearly. Any good citizen will count it a privilege to have the opportunity to make a sacrifice so that his child may have an education. While the will to contribute money for the support of public schools is all but universal among the communities of the country, the ability to do so varies greatly. When we leave one local unit and pass over into the next astonishing inequalities begin to appear. To maintain a good school in unit *a* requires two or three times as much sacrifice as is required to maintain a like school in unit *b*. We pass on and find unit *c* very rich and unit *d* very poor. Passing on through the county, we find constant variations among the local units. Should not the county undertake to level up these inequalities to some extent at least? Does not the welfare of the county demand that it shall throw a protecting arm around the weaker units within its border? Isn't it the correct business policy for it to do so? The same scripture which declares that every man must bear his own burden also exhorts the faithful to bear one another's burdens. By that gospel the local unit is to look out for its own school, but at the same time it is the duty of the strong unit to help the weak one to the extent of a partial equalization of the educational burden at least. For this reason there should be a county school fund big enough to match dollar for dollar for the local fund and in some instances the county fund should perhaps give two or three dollars for one contributed by the community.

A proper state system of schools implies a liberal state school fund. No state, it seems, has ever doubted the propriety of spending public funds to build asylums, prisons, almshouses and reformatories, though we may assume a regret for the necessity for such institutions. If the state does not like the business of building penal, charitable and reformatory institutions, it ought then to engage more largely in building educational institutions for the very patent reason that education tends to increase manual efficiency, to check criminal instincts and to develop mental capacity.

In the best regulated school systems the state will bear a large part of the financial burden. It will do so for the very good reason that it is better able to do so than either the township or the county. The

[1] Presented at the Cincinnati meeting of the Department of Superintendence.

state has opened to it important sources of revenue that are not open to the smaller political units. The county and the township must depend upon a property tax, a poll tax and upon fines and forfeitures for their funds. The state may avail itself of all of these sources and in addition to these it may impose license taxes, income taxes and excise taxes of various sorts. All these latter sources of revenue are becoming larger and more important every year. How important they have already become is indicated by the fact that Pennsylvania now appropriates seven or eight million dollars annually to her common schools, nearly all of which is derived from corporation taxes, mostly of the three kinds I have mentioned. New York, Ohio and other states are also collecting large sums from their public service corporations and sharing the money liberally with their public schools. With the rapid growth of our industrial life, these sources of revenue will continue to become more and more productive and the state should accordingly make more and more liberal contributions to the support of the public schools in the city and the country.

Another argument in favor of the state school fund is found in the fact that state funds are better administered than local funds. Charges of graft in connection with the use of local school funds have been numerous and in many cases only too well founded. Charges of wastefulness and inefficiency in the use of such funds have been equally as numerous and well founded. So long as local funds are handled as a mere incidental duty by men whose principal energy is devoted to personal business affairs, so long there will be inefficiency in the management of such funds.

On the other hand, state school funds are handled by men chosen because of their fitness for that particular service, men who devote their main energy to that business. Therefore, efficiency has generally marked the administration of state school funds and graft in connection with them is practically unknown. On the whole, experience in the various states not only justifies the maintenance of state funds, but indicates that for the most part the state might properly and wisely increase their state school funds materially.

Of the methods of creating the state school funds, the time limits of this paper will not permit a discussion. It is not out of place to say, however, that few of the states have availed themselves of all the means at their command. Had the wisdom which retained the public lands in Minnesota, the Dakotas, Texas and some other states prevailed in all the other states, the other states would be in a much better condition than they are to-day. The colossal blunder of the age, the shame of our civilization, is the foolish way in which we have thrown away our birthright in the great natural resources, given us by a bountiful Providence for a beneficent purpose, but which we have sold for a mess of pottage. In my own state, West Virginia, the loss of natural gas from the leaks in the pipes transporting it to the great industrial centers amounts to enough to add a hundred dollars a year to the salary of every teacher in all the public schools of the state, yet the state sits idly by and allows such extravagance to continue year by year, blissfully unconscious of the fact that at the present rate of destruction this best and greatest of all natural fuels will be exhausted in less than three decades, and this too in the face of the fact that many rural schools are forced to suspend at the end of a five-and-a-half- or six-months' term for lack of funds. In my own state, ten million dollars' worth of electric energy goes to waste in our

mountain streams every year for sheer lack of the machinery to harness it and bid it do the work that is so rapidly consuming the richest deposit of soft coal on the face of the earth, this, too, in face of the fact that the average rural schoolhouse is a wooden box and the average rural teacher is paid starvation wages. There are other means of creating an adequate school fund, among which may be mentioned the following:

1. The state should retain the lands now sold at sacrifice prices for delinquent taxes.

2. Corporations which are consuming our natural resources should pay into the state treasury for school purposes a slight assessment on their gross incomes.

3. The amount of state revenues could be increased in most states by proper reforms in the methods of assessing property and collecting taxes. Dr. Wickliffe Rose in his excellent treatise on "School Revenues in Ten Southern States" finds that

> For the United States as a whole, real estate is assessed at 50 per cent. of its value; tangible personal property at about 25 per cent., and intangible personal property at about 5 per cent.

Is there any good reason why personal property should not contribute to the support of schools on the same basis as real estate?

4. In most of the states of the union the state school tax rate is very low and should be raised (and thereby add to the amount of the state school fund).

Next in importance to creating an adequate state fund is the importance of making the proper and best use of such a fund.

The most common method of determining the share of the state fund to go to each local unit is to divide the total amount of the fund by the total number of school youths in the state and thus establish a uniform per capita quota. This plan is used by more than thirty states of the union. Its wide use is doubtless due to two facts, first, its simplicity and ease of operation and, second, its mathematical justness. The equality of any one man with every other man has long been a boast of our democracy. Theoretically then every child in the state has a right to an equal share of any common fund to be used for school purposes. This plan, however, has become more and more the subject of criticism and attack during recent years. Its weakness lies in the fact that it fails to recognize the wide diversity of conditions among the local units of the state and does not take into consideration the equally great diversity of needs among the local units. By that plan Eagle district in Harrison county, West Virginia, with wealth enough to maintain its schools on a 5-cent levy receives just as much money per child as Washington district in Kanawha county, where a 25-cent levy will not run the schools the minimum term at the minimum rate of salary for teachers.

The plan has another serious weakness in that it takes note of pupils only, and not schools. Under it the schools may be never so bad and never so poorly attended, and yet the local unit would draw from the state treasury its per-capita share of the state fund.

Another popular plan is to base the distribution upon school attendance. There are several variations of this plan, such as that making (*a*) the school enrollment the basis, (*b*) that making the aggregate attendance the basis, and (*c*) that making the average attendance the basis.

As a whole this plan is subject to at least two criticisms. In the first place compulsory attendance laws are now in effect in 43 states out of the 48. If the laws are effective, as they generally are, then the higher-attendance records are enforced virtues and not especially deserving of reward.

In the second place, attendance bases discriminate in favor of the towns and cities as against the rural districts and are, therefore, especially objectionable because of the uniformly greater needs of the rural districts and because of the long standing discriminations against the rural districts that have been more or less general throughout the country. Because of the bad roads, the poor methods of transportation and the poorer means of protection from the weather, the average rural child can not attend school as many days in the year as the child in the city.

Another method is to base the ratio of distribution upon the number of teachers employed. This plan has the one important virtue that it recognizes the relation between cost and support, for the big factor in the cost of a system of schools is the salaries of the teachers employed. This plan has also a very patent objection. The great effort in many rural sections at the present time is to persuade the people to give up the little, inefficient schools and bring the pupils together in larger units. If the state is going to contribute funds according to the number of teachers employed, it will be only natural for boards of education to yield to the rather common clamor for a school at every man's door, no matter how small that school may be.

Undoubtedly the best plan for the distribution of state funds is a composite one embodying the four distinct elements of school census, the number of teachers necessarily employed, the especial needs and the especial deserts of the particular school or school unit.

On the basis of justice every child enumerated has a right to as large a share of the state fund as any other child, on the basis of equity the more needy should have the greater share and on the basis of expediency the especially deserving should have a special allowance. The effectiveness of the state subsidy for high schools, for consolidation of rural schools, for teaching such special subjects as agriculture, domestic science, manual training and the industrial arts stands out as a characteristic of the educational progress of the past two decades in the American states. We must not overlook the fact, however, that the principle of a subsidy as a theory is hard to justify. It may easily work wrongs. Every dollar of subsidy given to the high school takes its pence from the starving district that can't maintain its own elementary grades. The subsidy plan tends to make "the rich richer and the poor poorer," to quote a popular phrase from the political stump speaker. How many dollars of subsidy is it wise to grant even to the most deserving under such conditions?

To repeat let me say the very best plan of apportionment of state funds may be said to be the one based upon the four factors of enumeration, need, desert and possible good to be accomplished. The plan should have some flexibility, so that adjustments may be made from time to time to meet the varying conditions. It should be handled by professional experts, either the state board of education, the state superintendent of schools, or some agent selected by the state board or the state superintendent. It should vest the administering authority with reasonable discretionary power so as to insure the best possible use of every dollar expended.

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STATE PROGRAM FOR INDUSTRIAL AND SOCIAL EFFICIENCY[1]

To-day you may be receiving me in the mental attitude expressed by Goethe when

[1] Read before the National Education Association, Cincinnati, Ohio.

he said: "If you insist on telling me your opinion, for Heaven's sake tell me what you believe in. I have plenty of doubts of my own." So in taking this direct and positive position, I relieve myself of expressing any doubts or disagreements as to the workings of this briefly outlined program. How a state may consciously and consistently evolve a program for developing industrial and social efficiency is a large question. Our special concern to-day is the share that education is to have in such program-making.

The industrial world moves on while we hesitate over such matters as "aims of education," "relation of the school to the community," "the six and six plan." This industrial world rides on its rails of steel, travels by night as well as day, harnesses waterfalls, unlocks black diamonded energy, avails itself of mysterious forces; organizes processes into minute divisions; works hand and head, even heart and spirit of men and women, boys and girls. It studies the relation of the means to the end. It moves irresistibly as the gulf stream but with the speed of a spring torrent.

The educational world rides on rails of tradition; travels leisurely about five hours a day for five days in the week and sidetracks itself for one hundred and thirty days a year; harnesses with difficulty a public opinion naturally, or should I say unnaturally conservative towards new educational practise; attempts to unlock prejudice and to substitute a liberal outlook; avails itself of the intangible and always wonderful forces of spirit and mind; organizes processes in bold, broad and perhaps necessarily indefinite outlines; works the head—let us hope the hand, heart and spirit of youth. It studies the means but not so much the end. It moves irresistibly as the glacier from the north but with the speed of the proverbial tortoise.

The educational world is slow. A study of this splendid 1915 N. E. A. program shows that we are just realizing the importance of the constructive policies which were proposed thirty years ago by individuals who failed at that time to stand pat. All this time the industrial god has been at work and are we keeping up with him?

We are all familiar with that part of the story of "Through a Looking Glass" where Alice of Wonderland fame, running hand in hand with the Queen and going so fast that she can hardly keep up while the Queen continually cries "Faster! Faster!" asks between gasps of breath: "Are we nearly there?" As the Queen lets her rest awhile against a tree, Alice looks around and remarks, "Why, I do believe we have been under this tree the whole time! Everything's just as it was!" "Of course it is," replies the Queen; "what would you have it?" Still panting a little, Alice replies, "Well, in our country you'd generally get to somewhere else—if you ran very fast for a long time as we've been doing." "A slow sort of country!" says the Queen. "Now, here, you see, it takes all the running you can do to keep in the same place. If you want to get somewhere else, you must run at least twice as fast!"

With modern industrialism in the character Queen and our educational traditions assuming the rôle of Alice, we might easily develop an allegory applicable to the present educational and industrial situation in this country. But gradually we are learning that tremendous industrial forces have been developing with no adequate recognition of the schools and that it will require all the running that our educational policy can do to keep in the same place and if it wants to get somewhere else it must run at least twice as fast.

The industrial god is not discussing pro's and con's. Its program is far-reaching. It

has steel birds swooping upon defenseless cities; iron swordfish which hunger for armored plates; sky-scrapers that touch stars. It has an electric speech which brings the sound of the Liberty Bell of a Philadelphia to the World's Fair of a San Francisco. It has visualized on a screen the life history of a house-fly which repeats itself for a nickel. It has wormed its way beneath flowing waters; has bridged, with sweeping curves, broad rivers. It has made automatic the crafts of a Barnabas; has brought to all the labored script of a monastery.

This god has turned night into day; miles into minutes; great thoughts into penny words; peace into almost world war. It has made tailored suits for $14.50 and no king of a seventeenth century could command better; fine fitting one hundred and sixteen operationed shoes; Ford cars at $440 on a $5-a-day minimum wage. It has made possible this convention and brought New York people to Cincinnati almost within driving time from the next city. It has made paper out of wood, stone from sand, aluminum from clay, leather from paper and even so-called food from chemicals.

Yes and this god has made and unmade men and women. It has made blood and spirit of little girls into artificial flowers for a few bits of copper. It has used the nimble fingers of four year olds in tying knots for willow plumes that some social leader might preside at a child labor conference. It has taken the tan of a youth and turned it into the pallor of a mine boy. It has made millions work over time in a busy period at a seasonal trade only to bring idleness and viciousness in a dull one. It has brought for an expenditure of $5.98 to the wardrobe of a shop girl the imitation of a Parisian gown and with it perhaps even factory lofts, tubercular lungs and shirt-waist factory fires. It has made tillers of Poland soil into steel-trusted machines; lovers of Il Trovatore into underground woppers; children of Homer into fruit vendors; sun-kissed lads of open country into cave dwellers of a great city. It has made small men with dollars into so-called captains with power. Yes, it has brought better work to some and enslaving labor to others. It has brought riches to the rich, poverty to the poor—riches to some poor and disappointment, even Atlanta prison, to some rich.

Wonderful god! nearly everybody works for him. Some worship his graven image; a few study the workings of his mechanical mind hoping to discover a lubricant of sympathy and human interest. An industrial relations commission is seeking, as all good investigators should, to get to the foundations; has learned that every social and industrial and economic question is within the field of vision of this god.

But we are beginning to guide this all-powerful personage. Our schoolmaster President has laid a few rails upon which we may travel with a "safety to the public first" policy. According to some connected with big business, our Mr. Wilson has been the one who put "sigh" into psychology. But be that as it may, his attitude is but the concrete expression of many forces of public opinion which are now saying that industry exists for the people and not the people for industry—that business is the servant and not the master; that demands are to be human and not always material. We are about to say that the purpose of all activity is the increase of human wealth; that the dollar sign must find its final expression not in figures but in streets, schools, libraries, churches, museums, playgrounds; in music, art, literature—in the people themselves.

And this conception of human needs in

an industrial age is finding concrete expression in legislative halls. The industrial betterment program is broadening its course of study, inserting new subject-matter, differentiating its activities, developing policies for a new order of things. This program recognizes that the industrial god needs redirecting and that the people who now do his bidding must be helped—so helped that some day industry will express the consciousness of the people instead of having the people being expressed by industry. The state is beginning to personally conduct industry—at least in so far as concerns questions relating to the conditions under which its people shall work. The state is either discussing or enacting laws relative to minimum wage, workingmen's compensation, factory inspection, industrial insurance, apprenticeship, occupational diseases, collective bargaining, child labor, mothers' pensions.

Note that all of these things are a part of a state-wide program applicable to all people of the individual state, the benefit and the tax to fall upon all concerned. It waits not for its successes upon the theory of local option of individuals or communities. It rests not upon prejudice, tradition, local boards, ward politics. Once enacted academic discussion is ended. It moves with the strength and speed of the industrial god.

Perhaps we say it is all folly, too rapid. We would hesitate and discuss it academically and earnestly as we do the relation between the high school and college or between business and the church. But the industrial betterment program takes its cue from its teacher, the industrial god—a god which works universally, constantly, irresistibly. The enacted and proposed legislation for industrial betterment is to work universally, constantly, irresistibly on the theory that the universality or democratization of the human benefits which might come from industry must be as clearly defined and irresistibly applied as the evils which have been incident to industry.

Meanwhile where is our educational program? Have we a state-wide program which will turn a share of the profits of industry into educational opportunities for all the children of all the people? I think it reasonable to say that we have not consciously thought of such. This is not saying that individual cities have not established such a program. I never visit that eastern human melting pot and hear English words on its Hester Street or hear the laughter of children on a school roof garden, or watch the victrolized folk-dancing or see the great tower of a city college or the electric signals of a night continuation school, or catch the odor of a medicated school clinic without saluting a democracy which has established and is maintaining such an educational program.

But the state as a whole—where does it stand? Has it a minimum education law which it enforces—a teachers' compensation law—a school inspection law—occupational education law—teachers' pension law—adolescent education program—medical inspection law? Generally speaking the states have no such program. The educational program is still on a local option basis. It still rests upon either prejudice and tradition, or local initiative and foresight. Meanwhile to repeat, industry of the good and of the evil sort is state-wide in its workings. Meanwhile legislation looking to industrial betterment is state-wide in its consideration. And the educational program far more disjointed than the trolley systems of a state, still has its high spots of efficiency and effectiveness only in individual communities—ignoring the possibilities of a state-wide system of trunk lines reaching every hamlet and every person.

If, for example, our good schools movement in the Empire State could have a $200,000,000 issue of bonds corresponding to the good roads issue of bonds, or a $130,000,000 issue similar to the barge canal bond, in order that means could be provided to carry our youth to better schools, to finer ideals, to more practical and far-reaching benefits to childhood, we would indeed be making progress.

Picture three parallel columns. In the first column place all the state-wide changes which have taken place under the name of industrial progress. In the second, all the legislation which has been or is about to be enacted for the state-wide industrial and social advance of workers. In the third, all the state-wide programs for the educational advantage of our youth and adults and you will see how far behind we are as states in the conservation and the increasing of human wealth as it might be influenced by the public school system.

Industry neither argues nor sleeps. It works. Labor unions argue long and earnestly and then place their final word into a workingmen's compensation law. Social workers confer and confer and confer again; but behold, the state has a child labor law or a widows' pension, or a minimum wage. But we ————————?

Of course the states have done something. Some far more than others. I should be the last to deny that. The progressive ones are those which consider that education is the affair of the state—that the child is not to be disadvantaged by the community in which he happens to be born; that medical inspection is as important as factory inspection; that fire escapes on school houses are as important as those on a factory; that a decent wage for women teachers is as necessary as for the shop girl; that a system of taxation for supporting good consolidated schools is as beneficial as a state highway system; that certified teachers are as worthy of consideration as certified milk; that a free university training in liberal subjects is as reasonable as a free college training in agriculture; that extension service for the mechanic is as sensible as that for the farmer. It is such things as these which make up, to a considerable extent, a program for industrial and social efficiency.

There is one article of a state educational program to which I would call your special attention—an article which would place educational thought on the same plane with that section of the industrial betterment platform dealing with child labor. I refer to the question of child labor in its relation to education. This article might have the following sections:

1. That the education of young people is of public concern and that it consists of more than the training received in the all-day school and consequently the school must assume a guardianship of its youth beyond the period of day schooling.

2. That the purpose of employment of children up to eighteen years of age is for the benefit of the child, forms a part of his educative process and involves a consideration of the most important question of how far employment in occupations suitable to childhood can be made educative.

4. That no child is to go to work until he has reached a certain maturity, the degree of which is not to be fixed entirely by age limitations.

5. That no child is to go to work until he is physically fit to enter upon an occupational life.

6. That children are to work only in those occupations which have been approved after investigation by the State Department of Labor and a list of such occupations to be on file in the office of the local superintendent of schools.

7. That children are to work only in those local places of productive and distributive labor the physical and moral conditions of which have been favorably reported upon by the State Labor Department and the names of which are on file in the office of the local superintendent of schools.

8. That no child is to go to work until he has an employment certificate entitling him to work at a specific occupation for a specific employer. Every month the certificate is to be renewed or endorsed at the office of the superintendent of schools and due note to be taken relative to the change of process or occupation to which the child has been assigned.

9. That no child of normal health is to remain idle, for immediately after the child has ceased to be employed, the employer is to notify the local school authorities and the child is to return to his proper grade in the regular schools or in special classes organized for such children.

10. That when a child goes to work he is to work the first year at profitable employment for not more than one half of the time formerly provided for in the child labor law; that the second year the child is to be employed not more than two thirds of the time formerly provided for such employment; that in the third year the child is to be employed not more than three fourths of the time formerly provided and that not until the child is eighteen is he to work in profitable employment for a full working day.

11. That a child is to spend in school the difference between the time when he would legally be at work if section 10 did not prevail and the time when he is at work after section 10 prevails.

12. That the school instruction for such young people is to have any one or a combination of any of the plans herein set forth. To wit: (*a*) that the school work is to continue along lines of general education; or (*b*) that it is to give prevocational training which will assist the young worker in determining his vocational qualifications for a particular occupation; or (*c*) that it is to give trade or occupational extension work in order that he may be more proficient in the occupation at which he is now engaged.

Much has been left unsaid in outlining even the twelve sections of one article of an educational program which will make for industrial and social efficiency at least in so far as it concerns youthful workers in trade and industry. This and other articles will be written on the statute books of progressive states and it is then and then only that we will approach the solution of those industrial problems which properly belong to the educational forces.

In conclusion we must remember that the state is to do everything in its power to make the child able to meet the physical and mental emergencies of life adequately; make him acquainted with Mother Earth and her generous bounty by actual work on the soil; make him happy in the joy of cheerful labor; assist him in learning to use the eye and hand in useful yet beautiful craft work; bring him to the point of enjoying that character building which comes only with actual participation in the processes of feeling, seeing, thinking, doing; help him discover his aptitudes and interests and send him on the road to a vocation with some knowledge of its direction and some proficiency in walking thereon. These are some of the steps in the educative process which will make for an increase of human wealth.

Gradually we are gaining ground. Gradually we are attaining a conception of democracy in education. We started out to make gentlemen as in the days of Sirach; then thinkers as in the days of the acad-

emy. Now we are placing emphasis on vocational training. At first education was expressed by E^g (gentlemen), then E^c (culture), now E^v (vocation). Some day let us hope education may be expressed by E^{gcv} (gentlemen, culture, vocation) where all men will be gentlemen, all liberal in their mental attitude, all vocationally directed.

Long ago, it seems, Ruskin gave us the word:

> We are always in these days endeavoring to separate intellect and manual labor; we want one man to be always thinking and another to be always working, and we call one a gentleman and the other an operative; whereas the workman ought often to be thinking, and the thinker often to be working, and both should be gentlemen in the best sense.

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THE FUNCTION AND ORGANIZATION OF UNIVERSITY PRESSES[1]

Years ago when there was admittedly much force in the jibe that "a university press was an organization whose function was to publish works which no one would read" there was, quite naturally, as little general interest in its organization as there was in its function. To-day, when the various associations affiliated with many of our American universities under the general title of university presses have fairly challenged attention everywhere by the results of their activities, there is very general interest not only in their purpose but also in the efficiency of the methods by which they seek to achieve this purpose. The question of their organization may have been, and frequently was, at their inception merely an academic question in more than one sense: and was solved by each university as the occasion arose without much reference as to what other institutions had done. As a result of this we naturally find that the form of organization was determined in each case by local conditions—such as the traditions, needs, opportunities and even the location of each university. The conditions making for the establishment of a press at one of our universities were almost certain to be entirely different from those prevailing at another institution, which, nevertheless, felt the need of an organization of somewhat similar character. At some of our universities, for example, the first development was a printing plant for the manufacture of catalogues, reports and other documents. At others the university press came into being in response to a demand for a publishing house closely affiliated with the university, and concerned, at the start at least, with the work of publication almost to the exclusion of manufacturing. It is rather fortunate both for those interested in our existing university presses and for those who may be planning for others yet to be established that the development has been along these different lines, since much of value can be learned from even a brief survey of the methods followed by each press and of the conditions which made these most desirable.

Perhaps the best example of how a single factor may determine the character of the activities of a university press is the monopoly enjoyed by Oxford and Cambridge of printing in England the revised version of the Bible and the Church of England prayerbook. This monopoly necessitates at each institution a thoroughly equipped printing plant: the profit from it permits each institution to publish generously works of scholarship almost regardless of financial loss. In America some of our

[1] An address delivered before the Association of American Universities at Princeton, New Jersey, November 6, 1914.

university presses, while formed as printing plants, were enabled to proceed almost at once with the work of publication, because of the far-sighted generosity of friends in providing them with endowment funds. This represents perhaps the ideal organization for an American university press, since, while its printing plant may return a profit, its publishing business should not and can not fairly be expected to do so. The arrangement seems still more ideal when it is considered that such a press with a printing plant of its own not burdened with large fixed charges can, and ought to, manufacture books of the most distinguished format. But although this combination leaves little to be desired from either the esthetic or financial point of view, it is not necessary for every university to wait for such a winning combination before establishing its press.

As a rule the choice must be made at the start whether a particular press is to be a printing establishment or a publishing house. If the choice has to be made by a university more or less remote from a city and the typographical facilities offered there, and unable for this reason to secure satisfactory printing of its documents except at great inconvenience and at large cost, then the need is obviously for a printing plant. This plant, however, if it is to deserve the title of university press, must be scrupulously careful to follow the very best traditions of printing and of bookbinding: to set a standard, or, in other words, to be educational in its work. It is not enough that it should save the university money or that it should prove itself a financial success. For it is really capable of greater service than this, and should be seeking constantly how to broaden its field of service. As an example of what can be done in this direction may be mentioned the course followed by a printing plant at one of the western state universities. There to the work of routine printing for the institution has been added the prompt preparation and issue of monographs embodying the results of research by members of the faculty. These pamphlets—for they are often little more than that in form—may or may not presage the entrance of that university into the field of general publication, but they are immensely valuable to workers in other institutions and therefore make of a local printing plant an establishment whose activities are of such widespread interest as to warrant it in using the title of university press.

Where the initial choice between printing and publishing has to be made by a university situated in or near a city, different considerations almost necessarily lead to the founding of its university press as a publishing house. In the case of an institution thus located it is probable that the routine printing of catalogues and other pamphlets has been satisfactorily attended to for many years by local concerns; that because of the amount of such work which a large university can place each year the charges have been kept low through competitive bidding; and that the standard of printing has remained high if the university has recognized the influence it can properly exert to this end. Under such conditions it may quite fairly be urged that the establishment of a university printing plant is perhaps in large part a needless duplication of existing facilities, and that the real need of the institution is for a publishing house. It may be argued also that in such a community the establishment of a printing plant by a tax-exempt university to compete with tax-paying printers of the town is not only unnecessary, but unwise, since it would seem to indicate that the university is intent on seeking its own advantage rather than the good of the community. As a re-

sult it will probably be found best to respond to the immediate and greater need for a publishing house, and to allow the possibility of a printing plant to remain merely an attractive possibility until it becomes a necessity. There will be influences gradually working toward this, such as the inability of commercial printers to provide rare types for very occasional use. Whether or not such influences will ultimately force a university press, established in a community of the kind just described, to add the work of printing to its business of publishing will depend upon its willingness and ability to cooperate with printing concerns already existing. If it recognizes that it can broaden its field of service by setting and maintaining a high standard of manufacture in its publications; if it seeks to have these equal in excellence of typography and general appearance the best volumes issued by commercial publishing houses, or even by universities which have their own printing plants; if it endeavors, as it should, to develop in the university where it is located a love for fine printing as well as a desire for the best in books, close cooperation with one or more printing concerns is essential. From association it is not at all impossible that the university may eventually find itself with its own printing plant, the early cooperation tending towards a definite closer alliance between the university press and the printer, and the alliance later developing into a merging of the printing plant with the publishing house without surprise or objection on the part of the community. Meanwhile if its work of publishing shall have been well done the university press of this type will have used its opportunities and resources to much greater advantage than if it had begun its career as a printing plant.

The influence that questions connected with taxation may exert in determining whether or not a university shall operate a printing plant will play a part also in determining whether a given university shall constitute its press as a department of the institution or prefer that it shall be a separate organization, affiliated with the university but not owned by it. In so far as the average man within or without the university community is concerned the result is the same in either event—for the title, university press, identifies the organization absolutely with the seat of learning whose name it bears. There is, however, in many localities at least, an advantage to the university in making it plain to the city authorities that the institution itself is not seeking either to engage in the supposedly profitable work of printing or to enter the admittedly unremunerative field of publishing properly open to it: since there is a dislike on the part of many to have universities embarking in so-called business enterprises. Where no such feeling exists, it would perhaps be natural for a university to organize its press as an integral department of the institution. Where there is, or may be, feeling of the kind indicated, it is the part of wisdom for the university to favor or consent to the formation of its press, under an agreement with the university, as a separate organization, which shall make annual reports as to its business, etc., to the city, state and federal authorities exactly as other corporations are required to do by law, and pay such taxes as may be assessed against it. In this case the agreement suggested should be such as will absolutely safeguard the interests of the university, in view of the fact that it is lending both its name and prestige to an enterprise which has it in its power to misrepresent the institution as well as to represent it. Care should be taken, for example, to pro-

vide that the officers of the press and the general conduct of its business shall always be acceptable to the university. Provision should be made for the university to take over the business, if later this course appeals to it, without payment for good will. Meanwhile the university must be free to withdraw the permission granted for the use of its name in the title of the press. Above all it should be understood that no works are to be published by the press without the consent of the university authorities. The importance of this particular provision is emphasized because there is the greatest opportunity for misunderstanding here unless some definite form of procedure be agreed upon in advance. The organizers of such a press would not wish to bring discredit upon their university, but through mistaken enthusiasm might easily place it in an unfortunate position by the publication of a single ill-chosen work. If, however, all manuscripts must be approved by a faculty committee appointed by the university this possibility of friction is eliminated. The founders of such a press would naturally consent freely to such a proviso because of their recognition of their responsibility to the university. In return they have a right to expect a proper recognition by the university of its responsibility to the press, which should be free to cover a wide field, and to publish any scholarly, well-written work, however greatly its conclusions may differ from those of the faculty committee.

In some of our American universities we have then direct operation of the press by the university as one of its own departments. In others we find the press a separate organization controlled, but not managed, by the institution. In one of our universities where the press has taken the form of a publishing house the organization is described as a private corporation related directly to the university by the provision that its trustees must always be officers of the university, and that the president of the university shall be the president of the press. Here we have apparently as great a degree of control as if the press were a department of the university. At other universities the officers and trustees of the presses are alumni, perhaps not otherwise identified with the institutions concerned. Presumably each university is satisfied with its own arrangements, but because of the fact that outsiders may regard as curious the idea of a university press organized and conducted by those who are not necessarily either officers or teachers in the institution, it may be worth while to consider what advantages such a plan presents. That there are possible disadvantages may be admitted: although none which by the exercise of due care on the part of the university may not be overcome.

It is, however, necessary for the latter to do more than merely seek to safeguard its name and reputation by means of an agreement, such as has been suggested, which shall make clear for all time the duty of the press to place the interests of the university above its own. The university must also make certain in advance that the would-be founders of the press are men who will regard that duty as their pleasure, who will, because of this rather than because of formal agreements, respond to every matured suggestion made by the university authorities for the development of the enterprise: and who, in establishing their organization, have no thought of financial rewards to come from it to themselves personally or to their successors. In so far as these men, or any of them, devote their entire time and thought to the work of the press, it is but right that reasonable compensation for services rendered should

be included in the operating charges of the enterprise: although it is improbable that such salaries will bear comparison with the larger sums to be earned by those who interest themselves in the field of commercial publishing. But the men who contribute money for the foundation and maintenance of the press must literally contribute this, with no expectation of dividends to be returned to them. For if the organization is to be successful its purpose must be as unselfish as that of the university itself. It should not seek to make pecuniary profits for any individual, or group, or even for the university whose name it bears. Any gains that it may derive from manufacturing, or from the publication of any given work, should be devoted to broadening its field of service in the interest of education.

Thus shorn of the possibility of financially benefiting its founders, it would seem at first sight as if the work of each university press and its development must be left to the administrative officers or to the faculty of the institution in which it operates. That this has not proved to be the case everywhere and that the reverse is proving increasingly true is doubtless due both to the fact that the business of printing and publishing is so fascinating, and to the further fact that more and more alumni delight to add to their own personal business interests some form of work for their university. In the management of a press there is presented a most attractive field for the exercise of any talents which they may possess. If they be endowed with a fair amount of business ability it will do much to offset inadequate capital endowment available for the press at the outset of its career. Their enthusiasm may be no greater than that which members of the faculty would bring to the task: but it is quite conceivable that the association of some members of the general body of the alumni of any university with its press may cause the enterprise to seem less academic to the remainder of the graduates than if it were managed and directed solely by professors of the institution. The choice of works for publication made by such graduate managers may possibly not always be as conservative as the selections of a faculty committee, but if faculty representatives have the power to veto the decision of the graduate managers the latter can do the university no harm by their suggestions. They are furthermore likely to do its press much good through constantly seeking to prevent the organization's falling into the rut of issuing chiefly theses, lectures and similar local material —if it may be so described. In such works the press must naturally be interested because of its relation to the university: but because of its relation to the general public the press must be alert to the opportunity and the duty of publishing volumes by writers in other institutions and in other countries. A faculty management may recognize this as well as a graduate management. A proper combination of the two is perhaps more certain to recognize it than either one alone.

Graduate management with faculty supervision is apt to be of advantage to the university and its press in other ways. For one thing, it is far from undesirable in university publishing to have the decision as to what works shall be published made by university representatives who are in no way concerned with the question as to how such publications are to be financed, or how profitable or unprofitable they may be. These problems are left to the graduates conducting the press and constitute the strongest reason for having associated with the enterprise men trained for business rather than for teaching or research. Such men, once enlisted in the

service of the press, will bring to the work not only commercial experience, but also a certain business enthusiasm of equal value —since it will lead them to devote all their time and energy to the task of rendering an enterprise, probably doomed in advance to financial loss, as nearly self-supporting as it can be made. Once, therefore, a work has been approved for publication by the university authorities, it is almost certain that graduate managers of the business type will secure for it wider distribution than would be possible under faculty directors or trustees. For the chief interest of the latter must be in their own field of study, rather than in the business side of the press, and they are more than likely, from the very nature of their profession, to be unaccustomed to dealing with the details of advertising, etc., necessary in any campaign of distribution. It is probable also that graduate managers will be prepared to spend more money, as well as more time, in perfecting the appearance of a given volume than would faculty trustees, who will almost inevitably be influenced in their feeling as to the initial cost of manufacturing any book by their knowledge that they themselves can do comparatively little after its publication to increase its sales. In cases where, for such reasons, university presses have been organized under graduate management, but university control, there has merely been a recognition of the fact that no institution can fairly expect members of its faculty to do their own work and at the same time do justice to the possibilities of the press. For the development of these possibilities there is demanded the closest study and constant planning. Otherwise books may be printed but not distributed, and surely it is productive of little good to publish works of merit and allow the world to remain in ignorance of their existence: or to put them forth in such forbidding form as may repel, rather than attract, the prospective buyer should he chance upon the volumes.

If a university press is to feel free to publish works which merit its imprint, whether or not such books will return to the organization the money expended upon them, it must rely in part, at least, on income from endowment funds held by the university for its benefit. If, on the other hand, the press is to remain always most keenly interested in increasing to the utmost the sales of its publications it is perhaps desirable that such income from general endowment should be less than the actual needs of the enterprise. For in such case the necessity before the press to make its receipts as nearly as possible equal its disbursements will prove a constant and healthy inspiration to the development of improved machinery for distribution. A form of endowment then which aids a press and yet does not tempt it to abate its zeal for making sales of its works has been sought by many interested in university presses and has led to the establishment of individual publication funds as distinct from general endowment for the press in at least one of our universities. From the income of these funds works in history or other specified subjects are published each year by the press under a contract with the university as the trustee of a given publication fund. By the terms of this agreement the university as well as the author is entitled to the payment of royalties from all sales of works put forth with the imprint of any one such foundation: and the university is required to use its royalty payments for additional publishing, in some cases adding at least a portion of such receipts to the principal of a publication fund. It is evident that every sale made on such a basis, not only benefits the author and helps the press to meet current ex-

penses, but also definitely increases the resources available for publication work in future. The plan is one therefore which is apt to appeal both to the university and its press, and, it may be added, to donors—since the latter must naturally be interested in seeing the usefulness of their foundation increased year by year. It seems probable that the establishment of such foundations in our universities will increase greatly, because there are always many who prefer giving individual funds to joining in a general endowment movement. Another potent reason is that with such individual publication funds can be associated permanently the name of someone in whose honor and memory the gift has been made to the university. It would be difficult to plan any form of memorial of greater service. Side by side with the establishment of such funds should proceed, however, the gradual growth of general endowment for the press, so that if the scope of the work of any or all publication funds is limited the press may nevertheless not find its operations unduly restricted.

If in the development of this discussion more has been said of publishing than of printing, it may frankly be admitted that it is because publishing seems to the writer more important than printing, if a choice must be made between the two. The function of a university press can not properly be described as either printing or publishing for the benefit of its own university, however, but as something more than either of these activities, or indeed of both combined. The function of a university press in fact is nothing less than to render distinct service to the world in general, through the medium of printing or publishing or both, and in such ways to supplement the work of education which commands the devotion of the university whose name the press bears. Its mission may be fairly described as university extension work of the finest kind. It is probable that as the press grows it will reflect credit upon the university where it is located, and may even add to its renown as a seat of learning. It is practically certain that through its work the press will bring into prominence writers whose names would otherwise have been known to but few. It is inevitable that by publishing works of instructors and assistant professors the press will aid materially in securing for them, in addition to this larger recognition, earlier promotion. These results are pleasant to contemplate, but they do not in themselves and alone justify the establishment and maintenance of a university press. Such an organization may incidentally benefit its own university, but its primary duty is to the world of scholarship and letters, and to the public at large, rather than to any single institution. It follows naturally, however, that the higher the service the press renders to the world the greater will be the benefits resulting from its operations to its own university.

It is precisely because its function is worldwide service in the cause of education that the organization of the work of a university press is of more than local interest. We must all concern ourselves with the question of how our university presses may obtain still wider distribution of their volumes, not just among the graduates of any given institution, but very generally among our people. For if our university presses merely print meritorious works and find few readers for them, they are manifestly not accomplishing their purpose. Some of our presses are admittedly more successful than others in this respect, but no one of them can as yet point to distribution commensurate with the importance of the works bearing its imprint. The problem then is of interest to them all. More than that, its

solution is of importance to our nation as a whole. It has been said that in America we have pinned our faith to popular education. Recent history has shown how willingly our people turn to those connected with our universities for help in dealing with their difficulties and perplexities. Abroad we can see how the aspirations of a people have been guided, if not actually moulded, by the widespread diffusion of the views of certain scholars. Our American university presses have no propaganda to push, but in their lists are to be found many works which if widely read and discussed would give to our democracy the broad knowledge necessary for understanding and intelligent decision. It is not only our business as publishers to exert ourselves individually to secure wider distribution for such works, but also our duty as thinking Americans to cooperate to bring about such a result.

Why should we not then at least make a start now by having a number of our organizations form what might perhaps be called the university press association, or the united university press service? There is not time for any one to attempt at this meeting to go into all the details of such an alliance. One might briefly, however, point out the saving in expense to each press, combined with increase in efficiency, which would result, for example, if one representative from such an association, well known to the book trade of the country, could make several trips a year through the United States on behalf of the allied presses; instead of having each one send out its own traveler with only its own books and visiting comparatively few cities. Another possibility open to such an association would be the maintaining in such places as New York, Boston, Chicago and Philadelphia, as conditions might warrant, of a university press association bookshop, where the complete publications of each of the presses might be found, in a reading room which people would delight to frequent. Organized on proper lines such stores need not involve any of the organizations in heavy expense. They would certainly prove a convenience to the general public of each city as well as to the book trade, and to study how to serve the convenience of the public is one of the first duties of every university press. We must not wait inactive for the public to seek us out. Rather we must go to that public and show it the value of what we have to offer.

The idea is put forward at this time not as one we should now discuss, but as one we shall later on probably wish to discuss. In it there is to be found no hint of consolidation—for each press must remain as independent as its university. There may be no immediate need for such an association but there is certainly opportunity before it. Our American university presses admittedly have much to learn from each other, but happily are none of them too old to learn. As a representative of one of the youngest I thank you for the opportunity given me to speak on a subject very near my own heart but in which many of the delegates here assembled might well be said to be professors, while I am but a student, though an eager one.

GEORGE PARMLY DAY
YALE UNIVERSITY PRESS

EDUCATIONAL EVENTS

EDUCATIONAL LEGISLATION

THE Bureau of Education has supplied information concerning bills introduced in congress and in several state legislatures from which we reproduce the following:

UNITED STATES CONGRESS

H. R. 21, 203 (Keating).—Providing for a farm women's bureau in the Department of Agriculture. This bureau would investigate problems

relating to American rural homes, and act as an advisory center relative to such problems; would assist in the organization of farm women clubs to study farm problems; would cooperate with the bureau of education in the movement for the consolidation of rural schools and for rural social centers and with the extension departments of the various agricultural colleges to establish circulating libraries and promote courses for home study by farm women; would try to solve the problem of female help on the farm; would disseminate information relative to scientific preparation of food and farm home economy; and would investigate labor saving devices for the home. $200,000 would be appropriated to carry out the provisions of the act.

ARKANSAS

H. B. 129.—Abolishing the board of trustees of the State University and other boards in charge of various state institutions; establishing a state fiscal board and conferring upon it and upon the state board of education functions now performed by the board of trustees and other boards. The state fiscal board would be composed of seven members elected by the people of the state, one each year for seven year terms. This board would have charge of the finances of the University of Arkansas, State Normal School, agricultural schools, charitable institutions, penitentiary, and other state institutions. It would authorize the state board of education to elect the presidents, and with the advice and consent of the presidents, the faculties, of the State University, Normal Schools, agricultural schools, blind schools and deaf mute school. The board would elect also the chief administrative officers of certain other state institutions, and with the advice and consent of the presidents of various state institutions would prescribe the course of study to be taught in the institutions.

COLORADO

——.—Providing for the county unit of organization for the administration of rural schools. The bill provides that all schools except those in first and second class districts shall be under the management of a single board of five persons elected by the voters of the county, the county superintendent serving as secretary and executive officer. The county board would employ all teachers for the county, would have power to change district boundary lines wherever necessary, to consolidate schools, and would have the expenditure of the county funds.

——.—Providing for a constitutional amendment making the terms of state and county superintendent four years, and for the nomination of these officers by petition, and their election on nonpartisan ballots.

——.—Providing for a general increase in the salaries of county superintendents, and a reclassification of counties on the basis of the salaries of these officers.

——.—Providing for the use of school buildings as social centers.

——.—Providing for a rural school inspector, statistician, and other additional help in the state department of public instruction.

——.—Providing for the recognition of certificates issued by other states; the requirements of these certificates to be similar to those of Colorado.

——.—Providing for the interchange of teachers between districts of the first and second class in Colorado and other states.

CONNECTICUT

S. B. 85.—Appropriating for a state normal school at Waterbury.

S. B. 228.—Providing for a military instructor in public schools.

S. B. 363.—Concerning the appointment of a woman vocational secretary by the state board of education.

H. B. 390.—Creating a committee to investigate the public school system.

H. B. 497.—Providing for an eight-hour day for minors and women except in domestic service.

H. B. 506.—Making it unlawful to compel any person to be vaccinated in order to enter or be an inmate of any public or private charitable institution.

H. B. 583.—Providing that boards of education may require all children between 14 and 18 years of age, who have not completed the eighth grade, to attend either day or evening school at least six hours each week during the regular school term.

H. B. 587.—Permitting pupils four years of age to enter the kindergartens, and permitting school committees to allow entrance at three years of age.

KANSAS

S. B. 425.—Providing a tax levy to pay the tuition of non-resident pupils in accredited high schools.

S. B. 440.—Providing for a commission on education to report to the 1917 legislature.

S. B. 432.—Providing for the observance of a Frances Willard Day in the public schools.

H. B. 371.—Providing for a commission on school sanitation.

H. B. 631.—Providing for the reorganization and strengthening of the state department of education.

NEW YORK

S. B. 328.—Permitting county boards of supervisors to establish farm schools upon a majority vote of the members of the board, for the purpose of giving instruction in the trades and the industrial, agricultural, and home-making subjects to children of from 8 to 18 years of age. It is proposed that the state apportion to each school so established $1,000 plus $200 for every teacher employed.

OREGON

H. B. 326.—Creating a division of pictorial instruction under the direction of the State board of education. This divison would loan free to educational institutions and organizations of the state, lantern slides, films, etc.

H. B. 337.—Reclassifying school districts; and making it mandatory for a district school board to permit a schoolhouse, when not occupied for school purposes, to be used for other proper purposes upon proper petition by the electors living within one half mile of the school.

H. B. 350.—Providing that the county school fund be apportioned, one half to the districts of the county in proportion to the number of teachers employed, remainder in proportion to the daily attendance. The bill provides also that the district boundary board may fix a rate for board or transportation of pupils, such expense to be a charge upon the common school fund of the county.

OHIO

H. B. 162.—Providing an agricultural advisory board, to be composed of the secretary of the state department of agriculture, the dean of the college of agriculture of the State University, and the director of the state agricultural experiment station, and empowering this board to coordinate the work of the three institutions mentioned above.

TEXAS

H. B. 263.—Placing under one management the University of Texas, the agricultural and mechanical college of Texas, the state school of mines, the Texas industrial institute, the college for the education of white girls in the arts and sciences, and the Prairie View state normal and industrial college.

H. B. 286.—Permitting elections in certain common and independent school districts to determine whether text-books should be furnished free to the pupils.

THE KAHN TRAVELING FELLOWS

ANNOUNCEMENT has been made by the trustees of the Kahn Foundation for the Foreign Travel of American Teachers that, because of the difficulties of foreign travel and the consequent impossibility of attaining the ends of the foundation, no fellows will be appointed for the year 1915–16. The experiences of the present appointees, who have been unable to carry out their itineraries, have led to this decision.

The fellows for the year 1914–15 are Professor Thomas Lindsey Blayney of the Rice Institute, Houston, Texas, and Professor Benjamin Sledd of Wake Forest College, Wake Forest, N. C., both of whom were in Europe at the outbreak of war. Professor Blayney had left England to attend his tenth doctor's jubilee at Heidelberg on July 28, intending to go from there to France by way of Strassburg. At Strassburg, however, he was advised not to put the French frontier between himself and the Orient, as war seemed inevitable. Professor Blayney rearranged his itinerary with the intention of getting on to the Orient as speedily as possible, and crossed over into Italy late in August expecting to go immediately to Egypt, India and Japan. By November 7 he had succeeded in getting to Cairo, Egypt, and reached Bombay on December 6.

Professor Sledd was in England at the outbreak of war and, being unable to continue his travels as planned, spent his time studying thoroughly the English secondary schools. By means of walking trips into the country he got very close to the English people. By November 17, however, he succeeded in getting to Paris where he was within sound of the cannonading and on December 6 he found it possible to make his way to Geneva. His three weeks in Paris gave him but little to confirm his ideas of the gay city gained from reading and pictures. The museums and galleries were, of course, all closed and there was little for him to do but to study the streets

and the populace. Of the schools he saw a great deal from the Sorbonne down to the primary schools. By the latter part of December he had succeeded in getting to Rome, and the following quotation from his letter gives the impressions of Italy as he found it:

The earthquake was the closest "call" I have ever had. I had just thrown back the cover and was preparing to get up, when my bed felt as if a giant serpent were tossing it back and forth on his folds. I could hear the walls cracking and breaking and the women squealing in the hallways, and yet the whole thing was over and done with so quickly that one really did not have time to get scared. Shocks continued all day, and next night Rome spent between praying in the squares and drinking in the cafés. The square before my window was thronged all night. How the city escaped is a wonder and the extent of the damage is only beginning to be realized. Surely old Porta del Popolo suffered fearfully and is still closed. To-day all Rome is filled with superstitious horror over a prophecy that the city will be destroyed on January 24!

Matters could hardly be worse than they are now in Italy. The government seems bent on war with Austria in the spring, while nine out of every ten of its population are on the verge of starvation. Sugar is 20 cents a pound and bread is 15 cents a three fourth loaf.

THE MELLON INSTITUTE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH

The Charter Day exercises of the University of Pittsburgh and the dedication of the new building of the Mellon Institute took place on Friday, February 26.

The principal address was made by Dr. Rossiter W. Raymond, of New York. Dr. W. J. Holland presented the building to the university on behalf of A. W. and R. B. Mellon, the donors, and it was accepted on behalf of the university, by Mr. George H. Clapp, president of the board of trustees.

At the alumni dinner in the evening, Charles W. Scovel, '83, presided. Addresses were made by Dr. Walther Riddle, on the "History of Chemistry in the University of Pittsburgh"; Dr. Raymond F. Bacon, on "The Mellon Institute"; Dr. Theodore W. Richards, on the "Practical Use of Research in Pure Science"; Judge Elbert H. Gary, on "Indiscriminate Criticism"; Chancellor Samuel B. McCormick, on "The University."

The following honorary degrees were conferred:

DOCTOR OF LAWS

Rossiter Worthington Raymond, mining engineer, New York.

Ira Remsen, former president and professor of chemistry, Johns Hopkins University.

Theodore William Richards, professor of chemistry and director Wolcott Gibbs Memorial Laboratory, Harvard University.

Edward Williams Morley, Hartford, Conn., former professor of chemistry, Western Reserve University.

Arthur Amos Noyes, professor of theoretical chemistry and former acting president, Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

John Ulric Nef, head of department of chemistry, University of Chicago.

DOCTOR OF SCIENCE

Elbert Henry Gary, New York, chief executive officer of United States Steel Corporation, president of American Iron and Steel Institute.

John Hays Hammond, New York, mining engineer.

Henry Marion Howe, Bedford Hills, New York, former professor of metallurgy, Columbia University.

George Hubbard Clapp, president Pittsburgh Testing Laboratory.

John Jacob Abel, professor of pharmacology, Johns Hopkins University.

DOCTOR OF CHEMISTRY

Edgar Fahs Smith, provost, University of Pennsylvania.

Charles Lathrop Parsons, chief mineral chemist, Bureau of Mines, Washington, D. C.

DOCTOR OF CHEMICAL ENGINEERING

William Hultz Walker, professor of chemical engineering, Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

Milton C. Whitaker, professor of industrial and engineering chemistry, Columbia University.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND NEWS

Dr. Frank J. Goodnow will be formally inaugurated president of the Johns Hopkins University on or about May 20. It is planned to give the occasion a double significance in installing the third president of the university

and in formally dedicating the new site at Homewood.

THE trustees of Teachers College, Columbia University, have appointed Professor Paul Monroe as director of the School of Education and Professor M. A. Bigelow as director of the School of Practical Arts.

THE Massachusetts legislative committee on education voted unanimously on February 25 in favor of "taking initial steps toward the establishment of a state university." The committee did not report a bill, submit plans or ask for any immediate appropriations, but named a subcommittee to draft a resolution embodying the ideas of the committee and indicating some authoritative body to be designated later. The state board of education to which the last legislature referred the matter of a state university for investigation recently reported unfavorably on its establishment.

THE joint committee of trustees and faculty at Cornell University which is considering President Schurman's recommendations looking to larger faculty participation in the university's administration is expected to hold a second session at an early day. The first meeting was held on February 13. At that meeting were present Chairman Hiscock and other members of the trustees' committee and the following representatives of the faculty: Professors Nichols, Willcox, Kimball, Burr, and Thilly, and Professor Moore, alternate. The questions involved were discussed fully and freely and the meeting is reported to have been in every way profitable and satisfactory.

PROFESSOR MYRA REYNOLDS, of the department of English in the University of Chicago, will be the convocation orator at the ninety-fourth convocation of the university on March 16. Professor Reynolds is the third woman to be chosen to give the convocation address at the University of Chicago, the other two being Her Excellency, the Countess of Aberdeen, and Miss Jane Addams, head of Hull House, Chicago.

DR. H. P. ARMSBY, director of the Institute of Animal Nutrition of the Pennsylvania College and Station, has been relieved of all undergraduate instruction and will devote his entire time to research in animal nutrition and to advanced graduate instruction.

PROFESSOR JAMES ROWLAND ANGELL, head of the department of psychology and dean of the faculties of arts, literature and science in the University of Chicago, has been appointed non-resident lecturer in psychology in Columbia University. Dr. Angell had expected to spend the present academic year in Paris as lecturer at the Sorbonne under appointment from the council of the University of Paris, but on account of the war his lectures have been postponed.

THE annual meeting of the New Jersey Council of Education will be held in Princeton on March 12 and 13. The chairman is Dr. Calvin N. Kendall, state commissioner of education.

IN Massachusetts Dr. David Snedden, commissioner of education, Rev. Charles W. Lyons, president of Boston College, Dr. H. C. Bumpus, president of Tufts College, Dean James H. Ropes, of Harvard University, and Mr. A. Lincoln Filene, of Boston, have been named by Governor Walsh to draft a bill to be presented to the legislature to provide for university extension education in Massachusetts. It is the governor's plan to provide state correspondence schools, moving-picture shows, lectures, debates for the education of poor and ambitious persons who have been unable to pursue their studies farther than the grammar schools. The governor believes that the work could be begun this year with an appropriation of not more than $50,000.

THE new classical society formed by the students of the College of the City of New York has adopted the name of the Herbermann Classical Club, in honor of Professor Herbermann, who recently retired from the position which he had held for more than forty years as professor of Latin. The first meeting of the club held last week was devoted to the consideration of "Some Phases of Roman Humor."

AT the first annual convention of the Vocational Education Association of the Middle

West recently held in Chicago, associate Professor Frank M. Leavitt, of the School of Education at the University of Chicago, was elected president of the association for 1915. Professor Leavitt, who has widely advocated vocational training in the public schools, has been for five years associate professor of industrial education in the University of Chicago, and has also been president of the Illinois Manual Arts Association and of the National Vocational Guidance Association.

The school men of Pennsylvania and of adjoining states will meet at the University of Pennsylvania from April 13 to 17 for "Schoolmen's Week." Specialists of national reputation will lead in the discussion of educational questions. Two days will be devoted to problems relating to the training of teachers, two days to rural school problems, three days to administration of city schools, and three days to matters in which the teachers of colleges and high schools are concerned. The evening addresses will be of interest to the general public. The program has been arranged by a committee composed of an equal number of university and public school men.

Arrangements have been made for a series of four conferences at New York University on the pedagogy of the higher education, in which the deans and professors of all divisions of the university are invited to participate. The first conference was held at the chancellor's house at University Heights, on the evening of March 2, when Chancellor Brown and Professor Paul Monroe, of Teachers College, Columbia University, were the speakers. The further conferences are as follows: March 16, "Scientific research in universities, as a form of public service: its relation to research in government bureaus and in institutions for research on private foundations." Dean Park, Professors McDougall and Woodman. March 30, "The relation of general culture to professional and other vocational training, with especial reference to twentieth century conditions," Professors Horne, Galloway and Clapp. April 13, "The value of method in college instruction and the pedagogical preparation of college instructors," Dean Bouton. Review of the conferences, Chancellor Brown.

Dr. John C. Branner, as has been noted in School and Society, has submitted his resignation as president of Stanford University to take effect on July 31. When he accepted this office two years ago he announced a determination to retire in the summer of 1915, when he will have completed his sixty-fifth year. Last May, near the close of his first year in the presidency, the academic council of the university faculty adopted a resolution urging the trustees to request President Branner to continue in office "until it is felt that the spirit with which he has inspired the university will carry it on in working out its ideals without his wise and kindly guidance." This resolution was endorsed by the alumni of the university in their annual meeting a few days afterward.

The board of trustees of Stanford University has elected to its membership Dr. Ralph Arnold, of Los Angeles, a graduate of the university, and has reelected Mr. William Babcock, a capitalist of San Francisco, and Mr. Charles P. Eells, a lawyer of San Francisco, whose terms recently expired. Dr. Arnold is the second alumnus on the board at the present time, the other being Mr. Herbert C. Hoover, who is now serving as chairman of the Belgian Relief Commission in London. Dr. Arnold graduated from the department of geology at Stanford in 1899, received his A.M. there in 1900, and his Ph.D. in 1902. For a number of years he was engaged in scientific work for the government, being for a time paleontologist of the Geological Survey and later in charge of the survey's oil investigations in California. For the last half dozen years Dr. Arnold has been engaged in private practise in the oil fields of the United States, Mexico and South America. He has recently been withdrawing from technical work to a considerable degree in order to devote himself more fully to research work in the field of paleontology.

Following the recommendation of President Lowell in his annual report that the tuition

fee in Harvard University be increased, a special committee of the faculty of arts and sciences has made a report which has been adopted by the faculty. The recommendations to the corporation are as follows:

1. That the tuition fee be raised to $200.

2. That this fee include the infirmary fee, the graduation fee in the graduate school of arts and sciences, and all laboratory fees, except charges for breakage,—it being understood that the corporation will make adequate appropriations for the several laboratories.

3. That all resident scholarships and fellowships in the departments under the faculty of arts and sciences be increased by an amount equivalent to the proposed increase in tuition.

4. That the present charges for examinations to make up conditions and the present charges for additional courses be continued, but that for students taking less than full work payments by the course be pro rata, *i. e.*, $50 per course, $25 per half course.

5. That the increased tuition fee be put into effect for all students in 1916–17.

6. That the tuition fee, if raised, be payable in advance in four instalments.

THE Columbia University committee on student organizations has unanimously recommended to the university council the adoption of the following resolution:

Resolved, that intercollegiate football be reestablished for a trial period of five years, with the following restrictions, as a sport for students of Columbia College who have been in residence at least one academic year and who are not exercising a professional option:

1. The schedule of games to follow the recommendation of the university committee on athletics and not to include for the present Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Cornell or Pennsylvania.

2. All games to be played on college grounds.

3. All games to be played on Saturdays or on holidays.

4. All coaches to be on the staff of the department of physical education and to be appointed in the same manner as all other academic officers.

5. Practise periods and the methods of training to have the authorization of the department of physical education.

6. The board of student representatives and the alumni federation to guarantee the academic authorities of the university against pressure on the part of alumni and students for a modification of these conditions within a trial period of five years.

ACCORDING to a press dispatch from Philadelphia more than 500 University of Pennsylvania students formed on March 5 a free speech society and empowered the committee to draw up a resolution denouncing the authorities of the institution and those in charge of *The Pennsylvanian*, the daily student publication, because of their attitude toward Mr. Samuel Gompers, president of the American Federation of Labor. The action was taken at a meeting of the students held in Knights of Columbus Hall, which was addressed by Mr. Gompers. The resolution, which it is planned to present for formal adoption at another meeting, censures the members of the faculty for refusing to permit Mr. Gompers to speak in one of the halls of the university, and criticizes the editors of the student publication for refusing to announce the day's meeting. Mr. Gompers, although he denounced the university authorities for their action, left the hall before the heated addresses were made by the students.

THROUGH the generosity of Mr. Richard B. Mellon an endowed lectureship has been presented to the Society for Biological Research, University of Pittsburgh, for an annual lecture on subjects of medical research. The lectures are to be published in the form of monographs for distribution to libraries and research workers. The first lecture was given by Professor John J. Abel, of Johns Hopkins University, before the fellows of the society and its guests on Saturday evening, February 27. Professor Abel was introduced by Dr. William Charles White of the department of medicine, president of the society. The subject of Dr. Abel's address was "Experimental and Chemical Studies of the Blood and their Bearing on Medicine." The lecture was an admirable exposition of Dr. Abel's researches, and a forecast of the necessity for experimental research in the field of chemistry of the animal body.

EX-PRESIDENT WILLIAM H. TAFT gave a series of lectures at Cornell University last week. His program included four addresses, the first

of them at a "convocation" of students in Bailey Hall on Wednesday at noon. The other three were lectures on the Goldwin Smith Foundation, and took place on Thursday, Friday and Saturday, in Sibley Dome. The subjects were anti-trust legislation and the working of the executive department of the United States government.

Professor John H. Gray, of the department of economics of the University of Minnesota, made an address at the third annual session of the Yellowstone Valley Teachers' Association at Billings, Mont., on the afternoon of February 19, taking as his subject, "Education and Social Progress." The same evening he made another address upon "Education and Life," and the following morning he spoke upon "The Public High School and the Community."

On Washington's birthday a university convocation was held at the University of Illinois at which two addresses were given. Professor E. B. Green, head of the department of history, spoke on "Washington and the Present Crisis." Professor J. W. Garner, head of the department of political science, spoke on the subject, "Duties of the Americans during the Present War." The Hindustani Association of the university entertained last week, Professor Lajpat Rai, who lectured on "The influence of ancient Hindu civilization on modern thought and ideals."

Announcement is made of lectures to be given at Western Reserve University as follows: "Education and War" will be the subject of a special university lecture to be given by Dr. George W. Crile, at the Amasa Stone Memorial Chapel on the evening of March 17. Dr. Crile, who is professor of surgery in Western Reserve University, has just returned from special research service in France and Belgium. "Some Problems of Neutrality" will be the subject of a lecture by Francis W. Dickey, A.M., instructor in political science in Western Reserve University, in a university lecture to be given in Amasa Stone Memorial Chapel the evening of March 9. The lectures of the eighth course on the McBride Lecture Foundation will be given by Professor Arthur Keith on five evenings in March. His subject will be "The Antiquity of Man." Professor Keith is Hunterian professor and conservator of the museum at the Royal College of Surgeons, London, and president of the Royal Anthropological Institute of Great Britain and Ireland. Sir Walter Raleigh, regius professor of English literature, Oxford University, will visit Cleveland as a McBride lecturer in April. Complete announcement of the course of lectures by Professor Keith and Sir Walter Raleigh will be made public later. On March 5, Mr. Wilfrid Ward, editor of the *Dublin Review*, gave a lecture on the McBride Foundation, his subject being "Cardinal Newman."

The University of Frankfort has received a bequest of $250,000 from Robert Flersheim.

The Arkansas legislature has made an appropriation of $65,000 for the Medical Department of the University of Arkansas for the next biennium. It has also passed a bill providing for the erection of a state hospital at Little Rock to be conducted in connection with the medical department of the university.

At the winter meeting of the board of trustees of the Hartford Seminary Foundation it was voted to approve the action of the executive committee in giving the name "Reed Hall" to the building now owned by the foundation and occupied by the Hartford School of Religious Pedagogy. The name is in honor of David Allen Reed, through whose effort this school was founded in Springfield, in 1885, as the School for Christian Workers.

DISCUSSION AND CORRESPONDENCE

WHY EDUCATE?

Almost every intelligent person would at once assume that only a fool or a hopeless reactionary could ask such a question. At the present day when every civilized government is engaged in promoting public education, it is taken as a foregone conclusion that its utility is no longer open to doubt. Albeit, if we ask for a definite answer as to the advantages that have accrued to the body politic through the general enlightenment of its citizens we do not get it. Dissatisfaction is rife

throughout the world and is most pronounced where economic conditions are most favorable. The end toward which society strives is the highest well-being of the greatest number. This well-being consists mainly in security to life and property and in the guarantee to every individual of the largest measure of liberty consistent with the liberty of every other individual. In the light of recent events, what has education accomplished toward the promotion of these ends? Is there at the present time less misery in the world than there was one thousand or two thousand years ago? So far as Europe is concerned not many persons will answer in the affirmative.

Plato and Aristotle were no believers in human progress. They were of the opinion that before their day many civilizations had arisen which had flourished for a time and had been destroyed to make room for others. When we read the accounts of explorers in western Asia we learn that it is one vast cemetery. One distinguished traveler recently declared that the years spent in that region had completely uprooted his faith in the evolutionary theory as far as man is concerned. Although he saw many evidences of growth, they were completely overshadowed by the remains of a greater past. Among modern writers who have dealt with historical subjects Herder, Kant, Fichte, Wilhelm von Humboldt, and, above all, Hegel were teleologists. His "Philosophy of History" is a long and eloquent glorification of the ultimate triumph of the moral forces in the affairs of men. He has observed many wanderings from the straight path, not a few retrograde steps and divagations; but he has no doubt that, on the whole, the movement has been steadily forward. Although writing in the Napoleonic era, he saw no cause for discouragement. Among Englishmen of recent times the late Lord Acton was the most pronounced champion of human progress. On the other hand, Machiavelli, Hellwald, Schopenhauer and others see no evidence of human progress, or if there be progress it is in a spiral which represents no real forward movement. Goethe, Carlyle and Froude were firmly convinced that every sin is punished here below, and were equally convinced that men could not help sinning. The wicked are punished, but the righteous often fail of their reward. Though the murderer forfeits his life, it does not restore that of his victim. In Greek thought Nemesis was the perpetual attendant of Hybris. If the gods did not evidently punish a wicked deed Herodotus thinks his information must be at fault. When we read the accounts of the dealings of the ancient states with one another in times of war and note how their spokesmen always managed to find a good reason for doing what they considered to their advantage, and compare their arguments with those put forth by the diplomatists of the twentieth century we are forcibly reminded that in this respect there has been no growth in morals. When we consider how ruthlessly unique works of art and architecture have recently been destroyed we are reminded of the methods of the ancient Romans, of the Saracens, of the Crusaders, to say nothing of those peoples whom the historians are wont to designate as barbarians. "What will a man give in exchange for his life?" How little regard is there now for human life! When we consider how many persons have been wantonly killed during the past few months and are likely to be killed in the near future it is plain that the average longevity of the present generation will not be greater than it was in the time of Herodotus, who puts it at about thirty-three years. When we add to the killed and permanently maimed the non-combatants who have been thrown into dire poverty we are constrained to believe that the misery now prevailing in Europe is greater than it has been at any time in the past except perhaps during the prevalence of the plague or the Black Death. That the Germans are the best-educated people in the world everybody admits. Albeit, what profit is there to the world in education if its chief end is to promote efficiency in the use of weapons of destruction? What gain is there in protecting life against disease if it is to be taken by violent means?

Many persons have read Galton's high tribute to the intelligence of the ancient Atheni-

ans; yet every reader of ancient history knows that they rarely exhibited any political insight, were often carried into the most violent excesses by waves of emotion, that there were few amongst them who were proof against bribes to betray their country to the highest-bidding foreigner, and that they were untruthful to an extent that seems incredible. Herbert Spencer, in his last years, confessed with much bitterness of soul that he had ceased to consider man a rational being in the larger sense of the term. What would he say if he were living now? The wide knowledge and long life of A. R. Wallace did not convince him that man had made any progress in intelligence or in morality within the period of recorded history. When we reflect that our comparatively peaceful country spends two thirds of its national revenues on wars, past and prospective, we are forcibly reminded of the limited influence common sense has on the course of human affairs.

The Mexicans are among the most illiterate people in the world. What most of them are avowedly fighting for is a principle, the recovery of natural rights of which they have been deprived by former administrations. We may condemn their methods; we can hardly condemn their aims. They are almost identical with those fought for by the men of our own revolution. Does anybody really know what Europe is fighting about? No two belligerents tell exactly the same story, and every one declares that the enemy is not disclosing his real motive. The present war will so seriously curtail the financial resources of every country that there will be but little money available for public education. Perhaps this is not a matter to be deplored in view of the meager benefits that have accrued to the present generation from the expenditures of the past.

Chas. W. Super
Athens, Ohio

QUOTATIONS

THE PROPOSED INCREASE IN TUITION FEES AT HARVARD UNIVERSITY

Nothing in the matter of tuition; on the contrary, though nominally the same, it has risen. We could and did, thirty years ago, take extra courses without cost; now the student must pay $20 for every course he takes over the minimum necessary for a degree. He pays too, now-a-days, in advance; we did not. Nothing in board; on the contrary, the catalogue of my freshman year says the cost of board at Memorial "is expected not to exceed $4.00 a week." The catalogue of this year says $5.25, besides a membership fee of $5.00. Nothing in room rent; again on the contrary. The room in Grays that I occupied in my freshman year costs its present occupant more than it cost me. My son now lives in the same entry of Thayer in which I lived junior and senior year, but the price of the room has gone up from $175 to $225, and he finds, just as I did, that the room is drafty and hard to heat, and the closets and sanitary arrangements, though improved, are still far from satisfactory.

In one particular there has been a change. The number of courses open to students of all kinds then occupied 14 pages of the catalogue, now they occupy 117 pages. But the number of courses that the college student must take for a degree has actually decreased, and, as a matter of fact, the average student takes much the same courses as his father did before him. The big, popular courses of my day are substantially the same to-day. Where then does the student gain as a result of the wonderful increase in endowment from $4,000,000 to $28,000,000, and in value of plant from $4,000,000 to $28,00,000? The college student has not reaped the harvest. The medical student has, the law student has, the graduate student and the student occupied in research has, but not the undergraduate. Under these circumstances is it not but right that, whatever change may be made in the tuition fee of other students, that of the Harvard College undergraduate should not be increased?

One thing more—I remember years ago hearing Mr. Beecher speak of the qualification of a deacon: "He must have a good report of them that are without." It was not enough that he should be a good man; he must in ad-

dition have a good reputation in the world at large. The belief is now only too prevalent through the United States that Harvard is a rich man's college. It is untrue, as is quickly shown by the fact that a greater proportion of men are working their way in whole or in part through Harvard than through any of the other large eastern colleges. The belief that Harvard is a rich man's college is dying, but nothing would so tend to strengthen and lend a plausibility to it as an increase in the tuition fee of the students.—F. H. HOOPER in the *Harvard Alumni Bulletin*.

A SCHOOL EQUALIZATION FUND

A MAJORITY of the cities and towns of Massachusetts have a direct financial interest in the pending bill to create a school equalization fund. To them it offers what they have long sought—a measure of relief from the burdens imposed by the rapidly increasing expense of public education. And this relief will come not only to the small hill towns, which need it most, but to some of the suburban cities which have found scholastic competition with Boston a matter of serious concern. The one thing that the bill aims to do is to make more nearly equal the educational opportunities throughout the state, to give to all pupils approximately the same chance of obtaining a decent schooling. It provides that ninety per cent. of the fund raised by the new tax shall be so distributed that the total received by any city or town when added to a specified local tax of $4 on each thousand of valuation, shall provide an amount equal to the product of fifteen cents multiplied by the sum of the aggregate number of days of attendance of all pupils in the schools of the city with an additional amount of fifteen cents for each day of attendance by each high school pupil. The measure plainly commits the state to what is for Massachusetts a new policy. The same system, however, has been adopted by other states, in all of which it has helped to increase educational efficiency. That it would do the same for Massachusetts is beyond question.—Boston *Transcript*.

BOOKS AND LITERATURE

PRESENT TENDENCIES IN SCIENCE TEACHING

The Teaching of Chemistry and Physics. By ALEXANDER SMITH and EDWIN H. HALL. Longmans, 1902.

The Teaching of the Scientific Method. By HENRY E. ARMSTRONG. The Macmillan Company, 1903.

The Teaching of Biology. By F. E. LLOYD and M. A. BIGELOW. Longmans, 1904.

Broad Lines in Science Teaching. Edited by F. HODSON. Christophers, London, 1909.

The Teaching of Geography. By WILLIAM J. SUTHERLAND. Scott Foresman & Company, 1909.

The Teaching of Physics. By CHARLES RIBORG MANN. The Macmillan Company, 1912.

To those who have followed even in a cursory way the multitude of papers on science teaching that have been read before the National Educational Association, and the various associations of secondary teachers of the sciences, or published in such journals as the *Educational Review*, the *School Review*, *Science* and *School Science and Mathematics*, it is evident that a process of lively fermentation has been going on within the past eight or ten years among those who are concerned with the functions of the sciences in our schemes of education.

The conventionalized and standardized methods of instruction at present prevailing are being attacked, and better methods are being urged.

It is true that vigorous protests against the overturning of cherished idols are not wanting. There are plenty of conservative spirits to whom institutionalized modes of procedure are very dear, to whom agitation for change of any kind is naturally distasteful or who perhaps have written books or laboratory manuals that they are loath to rewrite on new lines, or who have worked out lessons and stocked up with appliances that it would require labor and expense to change or replace. Such champions of things-as-they-are are not slow to raise their voices against the passing of an outworn order. They strenuously assert that their sciences were never so well taught as now—a proposi-

tion which is true enough but wholly beside the mark—and they hurl the words reformer, innovator and agitator as epithets of reproach at those who are striving to promote better conditions.

Even among these, however, there seems to be some disposition to get quietly into line with the most important of the changes that have been proposed, and to a considerable extent accomplished in their own practise, by those who are more progressive in their attitude. The agitation first began in this country about ten years ago through the influence of some progressive mathematics teachers who had caught the spirit of reform that was already growing in England, Germany and France.

It was headed by Professor David Eugene Smith, of Teachers College, Columbia University, Professors Young, Myers and Slaught, of the University of Chicago, Professor Florian Cajori, of Colorado, and a number of progressive secondary school men of the middle west, belonging to the Central Association of Science and Mathematics Teachers, together with a number in states farther east.

This movement expressed itself firstly in an organized effort to humanize mathematics teaching by closer attention to such applications of mathematics as are likely to be concrete and significant to high school pupils, secondly in a systematic effort to collect a large number of "real live problems" in mathematics and have them tested in the class-room for their practicability and educational value. So far as mathematics teaching is concerned, the movement has resulted in very substantial progress in these directions even to the extent of producing a number of new text-books embodying the results of such work, and forcing a somewhat radical revision of old favorites. Another phase of the movement is the attempt to knock out the bulkheads that separate the watertight compartments in which arithmetic, algebra, geometry and trigonometry have been confined by our highly conventionalized American methods of school administration.

The parent movement was launched in England by Professors Armstrong and Perry at the Finsbury Technical College during the eighties, and is known in this country as the "Perry movement." It expressed itself firstly as a stand against the prevailing system of teaching exclusively in preparation for formal examinations that require a mere knowledge of subject-matter, and secondly, *but primarily in intent, as a thoroughgoing championship of the heuristic or problem method of teaching, and the humanizing of school mathematics and science through attention to their history, to the biography of their great thinkers and workers, and to their manifold applications in the service of man, especially in the immediate environment of the pupils.* The leaders strenuously insisted that the study of science and mathematics as mere subject-matter had failed to give to students in schools the training in thinking and in applying scientific knowledge and scientific method that was demanded by the nation of its citizens for the solution of the immediate and vital material, economic and social problems that were facing it. They vigorously contended and cogently argued that the kind of ability possessed by scientific workers, *the ability to make effective use of knowledge through methodical reasoning and constructive imagination, can be gained only by much practise of first-hand inquiry in which the student by means of observation, hypothesis, and experiment finds out for himself the answers to questions about which he has been led to take a real and compelling interest.*

Professor Armstrong's book is a collection of addresses and committee reports made during a period of several years. In them he proves the need of a revolution in science teaching; shows what the scientific method of problem solving is; explains how chemistry and physics may be taught in accordance with it; and proves that such methods are feasible by telling in detail how he and others have actually done it. He even goes so far as to tell exactly the steps by which some real children actually carried through the solution of experimental problems by a course of procedure which *to them* was precisely what research is to an adult scientist. He advocates

heuristic nature study in the elementary grades—not "object lessons," but real observations and experiments by the children themselves, in every one of which they are finding out something interesting and useful about the familiar things of daily life that lie all about them. He shows how such work correlates naturally with arithmetic and geography because the arithmetical and geographical knowledge *is needed to get complete and satisfactory answers to the questions.* He also shows how one such problem leads to another, in the case of those that lie within the abilities of children, just as one research problem leads to others in the case of those that engage trained adult scientists.

Any one who knows boys and girls would agree, after reading through Professor Armstrong's series of experiments in Chapter XVI., that there would be few truants and much enthusiasm for school work in a school where such teaching prevailed. It is true that there are in our schools comparatively few teachers who could do such teaching; *but should we not have them? Aren't they worth seeking out and rewarding in proportion to the importance of their service?*

Mr. Hodson's book, published in 1909, shows how thoroughly the Armstrong-Perry propaganda has taken hold on prominent teachers and schools in England, and how far the reforms that these eminent teachers advocate have progressed.

While Professor Armstrong's book treats mainly of physical science and "general science" courses, Mr. Hodson's presents convincing pleas by progressive teachers in the various school branches for a similar method not only in the various sciences, but in history, economics and mathematics as well. The keynote of the book is the humanizing of the school work through the problem or heuristic type of teaching, that is, through teaching by the use of the scientific method.

That the splendid mental discipline which it is possible to gain from scientific study can not be gained by didactic and formal methods of study, but must be gained, if at all, by insight into the scientific method of attacking and solving problems, is directly implied and more or less clearly expressed by all the English writers to whom reference has been made. They all make it clear that *science consists of both subject-matter and method, and that the method is of more general educative value than the particular subject-matter involved.*

They all say or imply, moreover, that memorizing the subject-matter in the form of finished treatises which are the organized and finished product more or less up to date, of the process of scientific problem solving by adult minds is a barren and deadening employment for children, even though it be accompanied by illustrations and experimental demonstrations. The contention of these authors is that if the children are *set to finding out things* by observing, experimenting and thinking for themselves, under skillful guidance, they will in this process learn how to think and experiment for themselves, how to set up and test hypotheses and how to arrive at valid conclusions. Mr. Hodson and his collaborators contend along with Professor Armstrong that in studying by such methods the pupils will acquire all the subject-matter that can be significant to them, and acquire it in such a way that the knowledge they get *will stand some chance of being recalled and successfully used when the need for it occurs.*

Thus although none of the articles in these English books is entirely free from such misleading expressions as "cultivating the reasoning faculties," "training the powers of observation," and "cultivating *the* imagination," it is quite clear that when they employ these terms they usually attach to them meanings that are readily translatable into the accepted terminology of modern educational psychology, and are fairly consistent with the results of recent psychological researches.

The four American books in the order of their dates of publication show a progressive development in the philosophy of science-teaching that is paralleled in a less definite and systematic way by papers and addresses in the educational magazines and the proceedings of educational societies during the same period. Professor Hall's contribution accepts

the institutionalized Harvard Entrance Requirements in physics as that subject-matter which has been sanctioned by various influential educational bodies and authorities and labeled as material "proper for secondary schools"; and he makes no attempt to justify it on other grounds, but contents himself with clearly describing methods of procedure in the laboratory and class-room that are good for the teaching of this particular body of scientific subject-matter. He does not apply to this required subject-matter any principles or criteria for the choice of such content as is likely to be the most significant to pupils in connection with their present or future everyday lives, nor does he attempt to justify the methods he suggests by indicating how the training given in accordance with his suggestions is to be carried over by the pupils into life problems and function there. He appears simply to assume, as was common at that time, that it will be so carried over. In the light of recent psychological experiments on the transfer of training, and in the light of the very general opinion of high school principals and superintendents who during the last ten years have watched the effects of institutionalized physics teaching with growing dissatisfaction, it is clear that Professor Hall's assumption is not justified in 1914, no matter what justification in popular belief it might have found in 1902. The philosophy of teaching physics which he then held is summed up in the following paragraph, page 239. "The objects of education in science are, on the one hand, to make men capable, self-sustaining, physically comfortable, on the other hand, to increase their capacity and opportunities for intellectual enjoyment. Each of these objects has an ethical aspect; for men who are materially well-to-do and intellectually happy can hardly help being good men and good citizens." He says (page 240) the teacher "must ask, 'what is the best kind of training, the best kind of information, the best kind of stimulus for this particular class, for these particular individuals before me? How can I make the year they spend with me count most toward their life-long efficiency and happiness? How can I best develop their capabilities, correct their worst tendencies, influence their careers?'" As to how the teacher can set about to find for himself answers to these important and fundamental questions Professor Hall's book gives no information other than describing what has come to be known as the "National Physics Course."

Perhaps it can be done by having the pupils make seven experiments that ring the changes on various methods of getting the specific gravities of bodies—bodies with which they do nothing after they have obtained the specific gravities; perhaps by having them pull a wire with a spring balance until it breaks, record the balance reading, and then compare the average of several results for one wire with the average results similarly obtained for another wire of different diameter, but having them *do nothing significant or useful* with either the wires or the information; perhaps by finding the resistance of a voltaic cell, whose resistance they do not need to know for any purpose that they desire to accomplish, or by finding the specific resistance of a wire which they are not going to build into any piece of useful apparatus wherein a knowledge of its specific resistance is necessary in either the making or the using.

As to the specific educational values of such "stunts," as they are dubbed by high-school pupils, the teacher will find no discussion in this book. The author does say (page 314) with admirable clearness that he "can find no other criterion for deciding what things to take and what things to leave untouched, than that which is furnished by the interest and probable future needs, viewed broadly, of the ordinary pupil." This, however, is in connection with choosing what practical applications of physics shall enter into the course as illustrations *for fixing principles in memory*—such, for example, as heating systems, ventilation, drainage, lighting, transmission of power, steam engine, dynamo, motor, telegraph, and the like.

As contrasted with these interesting and important things, out of which significant problems *requiring knowledge of principles* may

arise, such laboratory experiments as finding coefficients of expansion and expressing them as decimals in which four zeros appear before the first significant figure, and in which there is very commonly (in high school work) an experimental error equal to 10 per cent. of the quantity measured, do not seem to be brought by Professor Hall to the test of this valuable criterion. That he has not done this may be explained by the fact that at the time of publication of his book the theory of formal discipline in its baldest form, although it had received severe blows at the hands of Hinsdale[1] and the Herbartians was still firm in the saddle, backed up by the authority of the famous "Committee of Ten" of the National Education Association (1899) and by the further fact that Professor Hall, according to his own profession, was then strongly prejudiced against theoretical study of pedagogical problems. This author therefore devotes his chapters mainly to practical and detailed suggestions to the teacher as to general methods of carrying on the work of teaching, and directions for carrying out the exercises and experiments of the class room and laboratory so as to insure successful and artistic demonstration and instruction.

So far, then, as methods are useful without clearly apprehended principles behind them, Professor Hall's contribution is of great value; and it is a pity that so small a proportion of the physics teachers in secondary schools have read it and appropriated to themselves the large amount of help that may be got from it.

While Professor Hall, in his part of the book, supports the heuristic attitude in the teaching of physics, he does so in a far more conservative way than does his colleague Professor Smith, in his contribution on the teaching of chemistry. Professor Smith's pedagogy is sane, vigorous and sound to the core. He has a distinct and thoroughly thought out philosophy of the teaching of chemistry, in which the criterion quoted above from Professor Hall is justified and consistently applied in the working out of his plan of developing the subject. He stands with Professor Armstrong for a thoroughgoing though somewhat conservative and cautious use of the heuristic or problem method, and with him rates training in the scientific method distinctly higher in educational value than the gaining of a complete view of the accepted logical scheme of the subject-matter. His suggestions for carrying out this method are detailed and adequate, and there is a great abundance of practical suggestions for humanizing the subject, and thus making it interesting and vital to both boys and girls. A great many questions that are likely to trouble the teachers of chemistry are clearly discussed, and the difficulties and pitfalls that are likely to be encountered are so carefully explained that no teacher with an approach to adequate preparation in the subject-matter of chemistry ought to fail in understanding and avoiding them.

The discussion of current text-books is especially valuable as furnishing criteria for the selection of both subject-matter and method adapted to various classes and schools, while the formulation and justification of general method in the class-room and laboratory, and the directions for applying it in the development and apportionment of the subject-matter, are of a sort that would tend to produce a great advance in the quality of chemistry teaching throughout the country if only more of the chemistry teachers would read and heed them, and make them a basis for systematic experiments in trying out and testing their methods of instruction. Such experiments, if the results were published in the educational magazines, would contribute, according to the clearness and value of their data, to educational progress in other localities.

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(To be continued)

[1] Hinsdale, B. A., "The Dogma of Formal Discipline," *Proc. N. E. A.*, 1894.

FARM PRACTISE IN THE FOUR-YEAR AGRICULTURAL COURSE

THE committee on instruction in agriculture made a report on farm practise in the four-

year agricultural course to the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations at its convention at Washington, D. C., November 12, 1913. This will be published in full by the association in the proceedings of the convention. The committee will study the subject further and report at the convention in 1914. The conclusions of the committee are given in the following summary:

The relative number of city boys matriculating in degree courses in agriculture is large and increasing.

The percentage of such students in the freshman classes in 1912–13 ran as high as 70 in one college and was estimated to be 10 or over in 29 of the 47 colleges heard from. Only 3 colleges reported all of their agricultural students as farm-reared.

It brings upon our colleges of agriculture severe and merited criticism to permit the graduation of such students without their fulfilling any requirement as to farm practise.

Furthermore, the presence in agricultural courses of large numbers of students who have had no farm experience is a serious embarrassment to the instructors and an injustice to other students whose progress is hampered.

It follows, then, that every student enrolling in the four-year agricultural course should be given some sort of examination to determine the extent of his knowledge of farm operations.

If it is unwise or impracticable to exclude such students as fail in this examination until they shall have gained farm experience, the colleges must eventually assume the responsibility of providing means for giving them such experience, either on farms owned by the colleges or on private farms.

Farm practise of a general nature should be acquired early in the college course, in order to prepare the students for practise in special branches of agriculture in the later years.

It will doubtless be impracticable for the agricultural colleges to provide any considerable number of students with training in the manual arts of the farm by employing them on the college or station farms.

Colleges having a number of demonstration farms may be able to train a few students in farm practise on these and the college farms.

But neither college farms nor demonstration farms are operated under normal conditions. It will be better, therefore, for the colleges to send inexperienced students out to selected private farms for practical experience.

Great care should be exercised in the selection of these farms. As nearly as possible they should meet the following conditions: (1) They should be relatively small general farms in order that the students may get a variety of work and experience. (2) They should be well equipped and well managed. (3) They should be in charge of men who are friendly to students, capable and willing to teach them, and possessed of good judgment as to the wages earned by the students.

The college should neither encourage nor permit inexperienced students whom they place on farms to hire at high wages. Disappointment and dissatisfaction are almost sure to result from such an arrangement. It would be better for each student to hire out for board, work clothes, and whatever else the farmer thinks his services are worth.

Each student should be required to bring from his employer a certificate of merit as a farm laborer before being credited with passing his farm practise condition. He should also make a report on his own observations and experiences and on the business management of the farm on which he has worked. Forms for the certificate of merit and for the student reports should be furnished by the college.

For farm-reared students and advanced students specializing in some branch of agriculture, lists should be made of dairy farmers, stock farmers, fruit farmers, truck farmers, poultry farmers, and the like, who are willing to employ advanced students and capable of instructing them, and students working on these farms should likewise be required to bring back certificates of merit, and personal reports.

The practise now followed in many institutions of arranging for groups of students to supplement their practical experience by visit-

ing successfully managed farms is to be highly commended. Farm observation trips can be made of great value not only to students who have begun to specialize but also to those in the more general courses in agriculture.

All farms to which students are sent for training or observation should be open at all times to visitation and inspection by members of the agricultural faculty, and in return the owners or managers of them should receive from the colleges special consideration in the way of advice and assistance.

In brief, farm practise should be dignified as an essential factor in the education of young men for agricultural pursuits, and the agencies employed by the colleges for providing such practise should be as free from unfavorable criticism as it is possible to make them.

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EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND STATISTICS

MEASUREMENTS OF CERTAIN ALGEBRAICAL ABILITIES

THE algebraical abilities to be measured were selected by analyzing the solutions of simple equations containing fractions with numerical denominators and numerical coefficients. In the solution of such equations there are five distinct types of examples:

1. The multiplication of a binomial by a numerical factor as

$$-6(3x-2) = -18x + 12.$$

2. Fractions are reduced to a common denominator as,

$$\frac{-7x-2}{6} + \frac{x+1}{8} = -\frac{28x+8+3x+3}{24}.$$

3. After the equation is cleared of fractions and all parentheses are removed, the terms containing x are transposed to the left-hand side of the equality sign and all terms not containing x are transposed to the right-hand side.

4. The terms containing x and those not containing x are then collected.

5. The value of x in the simplified form of the equation is then found as $-15x = 7$ from which $x = -7/15$.

A list of simple equations was prepared. This was called Test F. With this test as a basis, Tests B, C, D, and E were constructed, making the examples of these tests equal in difficulty to the corresponding step in the solution of the equations in Test F. Test A was constructed in a different manner. The seven forms, $a(bx-c)$, $a(-bx-c)$, $a(-bx+c)$, $-a(-bx+c)$, $-a(bx-c)$, $-a(bx+c)$, $-a(-bx-c)$ were distributed according to a formula. The quantities a, b and c were always less than 10.

The set of six tests were as follows:

Test A, multiplication of a binomial by a numerical factor.

Test B, reduction of fractions to a common denominator.

Test C, finding the value x in equations of the form $\pm ax = \pm b$.

Test D, transposition.

Test E, collection of terms.

Test F, complete solution of simple equations.

These tests were given to 275 first-year high-school students in March, 1914. A mimeographed copy of the tests was given to each student. The time allowance was as follows:

Test A, 2 minutes.	Test D, 2 minutes.
Test B, 3 minutes.	Test E, 3 minutes.
Test C, 1 minute.	Test F, 12 minutes.

In scoring the tests, an example was not counted attempted unless it was completed. The scores for the several tests were distributed according to the number of examples attempted and the number right. From these distributions, the average and average deviations were computed. These averages may be expressed as follows:

Test A, in 2 minutes an average of 17.3 binomials were multiplied by a numerical factor with an accuracy of 88 per cent.

Test B, in 3 minutes an average of 5.4 sets of fractions were reduced to a common denominator with an accuracy of 37 per cent.

Test C, in 1 minute the value of x was found

in an average of 9.5 equations of the form $\pm ax = \pm b$ with an accuracy of 65 per cent.

Test D, in 2 minutes the terms were transposed in an average of 9.3 equations with an accuracy of 77 per cent.

Test E, in 3 minutes the terms were collected in an average of 10.4 examples with an accuracy of 67 per cent.

Test F, in 12 minutes an average of 7.1 equations were solved with an accuracy of 33.8 per cent.

These averages may be used as tentative standards for the comparison of other classes with this group, but the degree of accuracy should be increased. To be able to solve correctly only one simple equation out of each three attempted is certainly not a satisfactory accomplishment for pupils who have spent six months in studying algebra.

The test papers were studied in order to determine the cause of this high degree of inaccuracy. The scores were distributed according to the number of examples attempted and the several groups of students thus formed were considered with respect to the number of examples which were solved correctly. In Test F, for example, eight students attempted 10 examples apiece. One of them had 8 right, one 7 right, one 6 right, two 5 right, two 1 right, and one none right. The group as a whole attempted 80 examples (*i. e.*, 10 apiece), of which 33 were right, or 41 per cent. The per cent. of examples solved correctly in Tests B, C, D, E and F by the students attempting one example, two examples, three examples, four examples, etc., is given in the following table.

This table shows that those students who worked most rapidly also worked with the highest degree of accuracy. The correlation between the number of examples attempted and the relative accuracy is 98 per cent. in Tests D and E. In all it is high except in Test F. Even here the correlation is essentially perfect except for the students who attempted 12 examples and 2 examples. These two groups involve only three students out of 250. When these three are excluded the correlation is 99.4 per cent.

TABLE SHOWING THE RELATION BETWEEN THE NUMBER OF EXAMPLES ATTEMPTED AND THE PER CENT. RIGHT

The table is to be read thus: Those students attempting 18 examples in Test C had an average of 69 per cent. right, those attempting 17 had an average of 85 per cent. right, etc.

No. Examples Attempted	Test B	C	D	E	F
18		69			
17		85			
16		85			
15		93			
14		71		88	
13		75	89	71	61
12		83	85	71	00
11		71	83	70	45
10		80	84	71	41
9	17	72	79	61	34
8	44	57	71	56	28
7	33	73	73	48	31
6	29	63	47	49	26
5	34	55	31	40	23
4	30	57	32	17	13
3	29	11	00		10
2	19	00	17		50
1	00	00	00		
Coefficient of correlation.....	.42	.80	.98	.98	.29

This same condition is shown in another way. In Test B, 67 pupils students failed to get a single example right. The average number of examples attempted by this group was 5.1 with an average deviation of 1.12. For the entire group the average was 5.4 examples attempted with an average of 1.0. This means that those students who failed to get a single example right, when considered with respect to the number attempted, are representative of the entire group.

A study of the errors which were made in the several tests reveals that the most prolific source of error is using the wrong sign before a term. A close second is mistakes in arithmetic. Copying a term wrong, failing to multiply both terms of a binomial, neglecting a term, and omitting to write x after the coefficient account for a large per cent. of the errors.

These facts suggest the following conclusions. In general, the student who works carefully and accurately is not the one who works slowly, but the one who works rapidly.

Probably the student works both accurately and rapidly because his attention is concentrated upon the work. The errors made are of such types that they may be attributed largely to lack of attention on the part of the student and to failure on the part of the teacher to reduce the student's knowledge of certain rules of algebra to the plane of automatic application.

If this analysis is correct, increased accuracy is to be obtained in two ways: first, by causing the student to be more attentive to what he is doing; second, by reducing his knowledge of fundamental rules to the plane of automatic application. The first means an increased interest in algebra, particularly the formal processes. One way to bring this about is by causing the student to become convinced that they are good for something. The second calls for systematic drill intelligently conducted.

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SOCIETIES AND MEETINGS

THE RELIGIOUS EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

"A NEW profession, that of religious educator, is springing up—a profession which, like that of public education, has several branches." So declares a resolution passed by the Religious Education Association at the Buffalo convention, which closed March 7. The declaration is based upon a survey of employed workers throughout the country. There are 135 directors of religious education in local churches, the majority of them men. They have an association of their own, which constitutes a department of the Religious Education Association. Active membership is open only to persons who have had a four years' college course or its equivalent, and have also had a three years' course in a theological seminary with courses in religious education, or in lieu of such seminary course two years in an approved school of religious education. Eligibility to membership both active and associate depends upon giving one's entire time as an employed worker in religious education. No similar organization or standards exists as yet among the 394 full-time workers employed by religious bodies in editorial, administrative and field work in religious education, much less among the 189 full-time secretaries in the International Sunday-school Association, and the 330 or more secretaries of boys' departments in Christian Associations. In the colleges, universities and theological seminaries, there is, however, a score of instructors and professors who give their whole time to instruction in religious education, and in more than a score of training schools for lay religious workers religious education is treated as a special department of knowledge and of practise.

The council, which initiates the policies of the Religious Education Association, after surveying this field, began the formulation of professional standards for the various branches of this upspringing profession, standards both of preliminary academic training and of technical studies. A full statement of the council's conclusions will appear in a few weeks. It will in general insist that churches and denominational bodies, not less than academic institutions, adopt genuine professional standards. For example, persons who are to teach teachers, or to organize and supervise religious education, or to edit Sunday-school magazines, or to plan curricula and write text-books—so the report will declare—should prepare for this work by at least two years' study of education. The spirit and the point of view of the whole can be judged from the following excerpts from a preliminary report which was adopted by the association as a declaration of its own policy of agitation and standard setting:

We must free ourselves from the fallacy that the training of workers in religious education consists in transmitting to them a set of cut-and-dried devices. Our problems require scientific methods for their solution; our leaders must have professional training and the professional spirit. Those who attain this standard should receive recognition as specialists; they should have discretion and the right of initiative in their respective fields; they should receive professional compensation, which must ever include provision for

growth through books, travel, conventions and study courses. Further, our churches must learn that religious education requires equipment in buildings, libraries, and teaching materials and apparatus, and that all expenditures in the field of religious education should be controlled by the best available knowledge as to what religious education is.

For the training and the supply of professional workers we must look chiefly to educational institutions that owe their existence to religious motives. We have repeatedly requested of such colleges that courses be given in the rudiments of religious education, to the end that our educated laymen may know something of real life in home and church. Many colleges have responded to these requests, and the responses are increasing. We now urge a further step. It is that the privately endowed colleges adopt at once the policy of ultimately giving to religious education as extended and thorough treatment as they give to public education. Whatever theories are held as to the proper aim of the college curriculum, the fact is that preparation for a license to teach in the schools of the state is now provided in a large proportion of the colleges that were founded in the interest of religion. Let these colleges prepare to offer equal preparation to teach religion. This will result not only in sending college graduates back to their home churches ready to do a layman's work, but also in laying a foundation for advanced courses on the part of the few who should go forward to professional studies. For this advanced professional training we must look to our theological seminaries, the graduate schools of the universities, and the colleges for teachers. Among the seminaries it will be necessary to draw clearly a distinction between general preparation for the pastorate and specialized preparation for a life work in religious education. To seminaries, universities, and colleges for teachers working in conjunction we must look for research work and for the preparation of teachers of religious education for colleges and universities, and for seminaries and training schools.

Such is the task before us. It is nothing less than the creation of a system of professional training for the leaders of the religious education movement.

Various departmental groups manifested a similar tendency to differentiate educational problems and to promote scientific knowledge of the facts involved. The college teachers of the Bible brought to a warm focus their dislike of the ambiguous position of Bible study in many colleges. Is it a study of history and literature, or is it an unavowed evangelism? The department of Sunday schools struggled to bring Sunday-school nomenclature and age division into line with what is known as to the periods of child growth, and then took steps toward a cooperative study of the religious life of children. Care was taken to avoid the pitfalls into which so much would-be child study has fallen, *first*, by providing for planned observation on particular points; *second*, by including the situation as well as the response in the observation; *third*, by selecting and controlling the observers; *fourth*, by testing the plan on a small scale before attempting it on a large one. The appetite for fact is further indicated by such topics as "Principles Underlying Graded Worship"; "What are the Facts as to the Moral Situation in Public High Schools?" "In Private Secondary Coeducational Schools?" "Can Religious Education Become Scientific?"

The growing social emphasis was evident, not only in a series of striking popular mass meetings on "The Rights of the Child," but also in various departmental studies of the relations of the children to the church as a social body and of the church's responsibility for the social influences that children meet in the community.

Several movements for coordinating the educational work of the churches with that of the state received attention—the North Dakota and Colorado method of giving high school credit for Bible study carried on by the churches, the Lakewood High School Bible study, and the Gary system of week-day religious instruction.

In view of the spread of such experiments, and in view of the agitation for new laws concerning the Bible in the schools, the association decided upon a specialized rather than general convention for next year with this as the topic: "The Coordination of Home, Church and Public School in Education."

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